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# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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## Educational News and Editorial Comment

### STUDIES OF UNIVERSITY PROBLEMS

The University of Minnesota has just published a bulletin edited by President Coffman, which is one of the few examples in existence of a careful, scientific study of the outlook of a university for future growth. A like study was made some years ago by President Hughes of Miami University and showed, as does this, that there are large problems ahead for the state university and for the contributing high schools.

A number of paragraphs from the summary of the Minnesota bulletin will be of interest to high-school officers, as well as to those who have to provide for Freshmen in college. We quote, therefore, at length from the bulletin.

A study of the several classes of secondary schools in Minnesota as to their number, enrollment, and, in some instances, their numbers of graduates, shows the state high school to be easily the dominating institution of this grade. There is no evidence that it will not continue to be so.

Computation of the proportion of the population attending public secondary schools shows that secondary education is being rapidly popularized—more rapidly in Minnesota than in the United States as a whole.

The annual number of graduates of the state high school has reached 7,000. If the forces which have been influential in bringing the number of

graduates to this annual total continue to operate during the next twenty years as they have in the past—and whether they will or will not no one can prophesy—there will be approximately 14,000 or 15,000 graduates in 1930 and 20,000 or thereabouts in 1940.

The state high school is also the predominant source of university Freshmen. For instance, of the 1,379 entering Freshmen of 1916-17, of whom 247 came from secondary schools outside the state, 989, or 71.8 per cent, were graduates of the state high schools of Minnesota. These graduates of state high schools constituted 87.4 per cent, or almost nine-tenths, of all those entering from within the state of Minnesota.

Although the number of Freshmen in the university shows a rapid increase, it appears that secondary education is being popularized much more rapidly than is higher education. A diminishing proportion of high-school graduates enter the university. The decrease was more rapid during the earlier than during the later portions of the thirty-year period for which facts are available. It seems not unlikely that during the next ten or twenty years this proportion will settle to somewhere between 20 and 25 per cent of the number of those graduated from the high schools.

A consideration of the relationships of the percentage just named with the probable number of graduates of state high schools in 1930 and again in 1940 as previously prophesied, leads to the prediction that the numbers of university Freshmen in those years may be, respectively, 3,500 and 4,500. This prediction is made on the assumption—not a very tenable one at best—that the forces which brought the number of Freshmen up to the proportion of 1916-17 will continue to be consistently operative. It has the merit, however, of being to some extent a conservative prophecy, since it does not leave out of account the decline in the proportion of high-school graduates who enter the university.

The bulletin quoted ought to be studied, not only because of the facts which it presents, but also because it gives hopeful promise that the scientific study of education is finally to become a part of the administration of universities. Following the history of science in general and beginning with the remote, universities have been scientific on every subject in the world except their own administration. The probable size of the Freshman class has been in all higher institutions a matter of interested speculation, but not of study. The preparations in state universities from year to year for the reception of this class have been often inadequate because growth has been unforeseen.

The Minnesota study makes it certain that Freshmen are on the increase. It opens several interesting questions of the relation of higher education to secondary education, and it points to the

necessity of a canvass in a systematic way by state authorities of future policies and probabilities.

#### PROVISION FOR STUDY OF UNIVERSITY PROBLEMS AT KANSAS

That other institutions are beginning to realize the importance of making such studies as the one just described appears from the comments made by the new chancellor of the University of Kansas in announcing the appointment of Dean Kelly as research professor of university administration.

The following is quoted from the *Lawrence Daily Journal-World*:

Chancellor E. H. Lindley in announcing the appointment said: "The creation of the position to which Dean Kelly has been called has been under consideration for some time. Among those best acquainted with higher education it is recognized that the rapid development of state universities, due to the rising level of general education and to a demand for new lines of service to the public, has given rise to serious problems of internal organization and of increasing cost of maintenance. These problems can no longer be solved by the cursory study of busy executives. They demand systematic and thorough-going investigation by men trained for such inquiry. These studies while concerned in part with cost of service and with business efficiency are in essential respects unlike those obtaining in industrial establishments. Here the output depends upon the most effective adjustment of human relations, and studies of administration of a university have as their chief aim the securing of maximal educational values from the human resources available. Such studies demand scholars trained in the spirit and aims of higher education as well as in the technique of general educational research.

"Dean Kelly will have opportunity to render in this new relationship a most valuable service to the University of Kansas and we trust to other institutions of similar character as well as to continue his influence in the upbuilding of the entire system of public education of the state. The duties of the new deanship will be twofold:

"1. As already indicated, there will be investigations of the facts, methods, and principles of university administration. Dean Kelly will therefore be a counsellor of the chancellor and of all other officers of administration in the university.

"2. There will be certain administrative duties assigned by the chancellor, which duties are, however, not designed to supersede the essential administrative relations now existing between the chancellor and the deans and directors of divisions of the university. There is simply added to the personnel a most important agency for the improvement of the administrative efficiency of the university, and the position is dignified with the title which properly belongs to it."

## GERMAN ENLARGEMENT OF POPULAR EDUCATION

It was assumed by many Americans that with the return of the German soldiers to their homes there would be a general demand for popular education, and that this demand would be granted. The German habit of thought is, however, so different from the American that this expectation has proved to be without foundation. The Germans have set up a select school for gifted pupils and have said once more to the great mass, "You must continue to be hewers of wood and drawers of water."

A brief statement of this project was given by Mr. Kandel in a report issued by the Bureau of Education. A recent issue of *School Life* gives a detailed account of the matter by P. H. Pearson. We quote some paragraphs from Mr. Pearson's article. The American reader will wonder how a newly established republic is to be satisfied with this sop to the populace, especially when it is understood that the ordinary higher schools continue to be exclusively resorts for the upper classes of society as they were in the days of the empire.

The quotation is as follows:

In the autumn of 1917 Dr. Reimann prevailed on the city authorities [of Berlin] to establish this new type of *Gymnasium* and *Realschule* together with corresponding schools for girls.

Admission of pupils to these schools is not granted upon the application of the parents in the usual way but upon the recommendation of a municipal board of examiners and approved by the respective school superintendents. During the final year of the required attendance at the folk school, pupils are selected by their teachers in conference with the rector as candidates for promotion. In this preliminary sifting a number of them are expected to drop out, but they lose no time, for they will finish their obligatory period in the usual way.

Those who pass the probationary year in a satisfactory manner will be admitted to an examination which will further reduce the number of those finally promoted. The form of this examination has not been definitely determined, and it is still under discussion by teachers and psychologists. These schools will follow the closing year of the folk school, but the final selection of pupils will not be made until after two years, during which period the gifts and inclinations of the pupils are to be carefully observed. After instruction in a common course for these two years, the pupils are to be offered a choice between two lines for their further studies, the classical courses of the *Gymnasium* and the modern courses of the *real Gymnasium*.

Though a tuition fee of 140 marks is to be charged, a part of the plan is to let no consideration of expense prevent deserving pupils from having the advantages the schools offer. For this reason a large number of free scholarships and also stipends to the value of 300 marks are available.

In view of the expected objection that this class of institutions would foster an educated proletariat, it was proposed to avoid such results, not by closing the doors of the university against the children of the poor, but by a systematic exclusion of poor and rich pupils alike if they lack the necessary gifts. The *Realschule* division meets the needs of pupils gifted in practical lines. This school is, moreover, to take the place of institutions preparing for the training seminaries, schools that have been criticized as forcing pupils into a certain calling too early instead of keeping the road open as long as possible for those still young in years.

The first *Gymnasium* of this type was calculated to accommodate an annual inflow of 90 pupils, or  $1\frac{1}{2}$  per cent of the 6,000 pupils that annually reach the highest class in the Berlin folk schools. Thus far the intelligence tests determining their selection show that this is approximately the proportion that may be expected to attain the classification of *Höchstbegabten*. The manner of selecting this first contingent was regarded as experimental and likely to be modified. Each of the Berlin folk schools was requested to pick out a few of its best pupils as candidates of the *Begabten* opportunities. This primary sifting brought out 300, from which the final group was chosen by means of a series of psychological tests.

The promotion of gifted pupils has been criticized as being an arrangement in the interest of bookish intellectualism, and it is said that it takes little account of those gifted in technical and aesthetic pursuits. In a session of the German committee of education, Dr. Reimann reported that provisions for those also had been made, and that already in March, 1918, the first examination of such had been held. This examination comprised boys and girls from the folk schools who had distinguished themselves, but had showed no exceptional talent in the purely intellectual branches. The examination was conducted by a committee consisting of specialists in art, representatives from the school boards of the city, and directors from the city vocational and continuation schools. The examiners based their decisions in part on the former work of the pupils and in part on what they produced during examinations. The examinations continued for three days with drawing from nature, memory, and imagination, two hours a day being given to each subject. Among 256 boys examined 18 were found excellent (*hochbefähigt*); of these, 9 were from thirteen to fourteen years; the other 9 were from fifteen and one-half to seventeen. Among the 130 girls examined only 7 were found excellent; 5 of them were younger than fourteen years and 2 were between fifteen and seventeen.

The city school boards judged these gifted boys and girls to be fully worthy of special advancement and took immediate steps to place them in training adapted to their gifts. Means for this purpose was provided where it was

lacking. In the second group, namely, those who ranked slightly below excellent, there were 46 boys and 11 girls whom the examiners judged to be well-fitted for training in some industrial vocation with art features. In a further group of 31 boys and 1 girl the judges saw great promise of future achievements in technical art. In the remaining group of 161 boys and 111 girls the art gifts were not sufficiently developed to warrant the choice of work of this character, though, clearly, these too would be able to do good work in selected trades.

These examinations have prepared the way for a comprehensive plan to be carried on at the close of every semester, viz., to conduct three separate examinations of gifted pupils, one of a purely scientific character, one technical, and one artistic.

#### THE ARMY SCHOOL

Enlistments in the army have been going on since the close of the war with the promise held out to the men that they shall receive in addition to military training an opportunity to learn a trade and to study some general subjects of the kind taught in academic institutions. Congress has made provision for instruction in the army schools. In addition, there are provided in the camps the quarters in which classes can be held and in which shops can be set up; there is a very unusual equipment for shops easily accessible in the remains of war-time mechanical appliances, tools, and materials.

A central training school for teachers was held at Camp Grant during the summer. To this training school came camp directors and teachers from all of the army schools. Five hundred soldiers went to school and furnished the opportunity for model teaching.

The following extracts from a Rockford paper give some of the facts which were reported in connection with Secretary Baker's visit to the camp:

Secretary of War Newton D. Baker delivered the "commencement" address at the closing of the central summer school of the United States army education and recreation division here today, winding up a summer of normal-school work of nearly 2,000 civilian and commissioned officer instructors, as well as 500 enlisted men and 165 women taking special instruction.

Most of the normal-school men and women have been here since July 1. While the Camp Grant University in Khaki concluded its first term of educational and vocational work in June, the classes have been kept going at top speed, as well as the vocational shops, the experimental farm, and other phases of this great experiment by the army, with the 500 enlisted men, some of whom

have been in training here, others of whom were brought here from various other camp schools to provide a model school for the instruction of the teachers.

The men and women "graduated" here today will return, after short leaves at their homes, to the 231 camps throughout the country and island possessions, where it is expected that upward of 150,000 enlisted men will take the training offered them this winter. Of this number it is expected that fully 2,000 Camp Grant soldiers will avail themselves of the opportunity to learn a trade, practical agriculture, business efficiency, or the bare rudiments of education that transform the illiterate or non-English-speaking into speaking, reading, and writing American soldiers and citizens.

"We have arranged such a course for the enlisted man," said Dr. Mann in speaking of the school's work today, "that upon the conclusion of his term of enlistment he cannot afford to re-enlist."

In this connection it was stated by Major-General George Bell, Jr., the local commander—who has taken an especial interest in the school work—that numerous men have left the first term of the University in Khaki at Camp Grant for jobs paying from 100 to 150 per cent more money than they ever earned in civil life before or ever could earn.

For instance, a man who went through the cooks' and bakers' school now has a \$3,000 job as a chef; tractor experts are being snapped up, as fast as they are turned out, by the Holt Manufacturing Company for jobs, not one of which pays less than \$150 a month. With 150,000 men in school throughout the country in a total army of some 300,000 the annual "turnover" of men will be something like 2,000 a year, according to Major Lentz.

"You can see what this will mean to the country," he said. "When this school idea is going on a firm foundation—this is only the first year for it and it is still formative to some extent—it will be not only turning back to civil life 2,000 men trained to take better jobs than they ever had or could hold before, but turning back trained American citizens. The idea is a military one, too. We found, when selective service was started, that we had not enough trained men and that a very great percentage of all men were illiterate or non-English-speaking. This will correct that from a military standpoint and at the same time benefit the community."

A "show" was put on for Secretary Baker today that was unusual in many respects and, although such a show has been going on at many camps recently in some form or other, it was the secretary's first sight of it. This was an Americanization platoon; sixteen men, of a dozen different nationalities, none of whom could read or write English three or four months ago, several of whom could not speak it.

This platoon, under the command of Sergt. Bud Houchens—born in Kentucky of old American stock—an illiterate a few months ago, included such men as Joe Schmidt, Hungary, who could not speak, read, or write English four months ago; Theotine Paulin, a French Canadian who knew no English and who could not read or write in any language; Mike Prontiker, a Czech who

proudly displays his three-months-old knowledge of English, and Peter Mikelson. A book might be written about Peter. He says he was born in 1902. Personally, I think he was born in 1905. He won't be shaving for several years. He is a Dane, a slight little chap, with the friendliest blue eyes and the warmest smile you ever saw. He tells—all of them make some sort of a speech, telling their own stories—of coming to this country three months ago, ignorant of English, illiterate in all languages, a stowaway. They caught him. He was put on a boat for deportation. He broke a door and walked out. He landed in New York. After days of wandering, too slight to do rough work, too ignorant to do light work, he joined the American army. He can read now, and write; no "X" on the payroll for him and, as he tells it, his voice sort of falling to a whisper now and then, you do not laugh at all.

#### TEACHING CITIZENSHIP

One of the chief courses in this army school is a course which prepares for a better understanding of the problems of social life. In describing this course one of the members of the staff makes the following statement:

How a man earns his living is secondary. The primary consideration is his *attitude* on social problems, toward the government, law, the home, children, etc. At this time, when radicalism under various names is so prevalent, it is very important that men, soldiers, women, citizens, have sane attitudes toward organized society. When one thinks wrongly, his actions are wrong, because actions are the result of thinking.

The sole purpose of the "Basic Course in Citizenship" is to give the soldiers *sane attitudes*. There are certain recurrent themes, such as "value of team play"; "meaning of work"; "respect for property"; "respect for the home and women"; "faith in evolution in contrast with revolution"; "respect for the rights of others," etc. These and the remainder in the list are emphasized over and over again to the men. Our method is not to fill the students with information, but to use the *problem* method by bringing the soldiers face to face with the facts of their own experience, by arousing interest, challenging attention, and establishing a perplexity. In this course the teacher must not lecture to the soldier, or announce his own conclusions, but by tact, resourcefulness, and patience lead (educate) the soldiers to reach their own conclusions. The means is a series of problems in our modern life. We try to give the men sane attitudes on these problems, and our success has been quite satisfactory.

In the public schools the method is to study history by countries. We take problems and use the history of countries only incidentally to throw light on our problems. For example, the first question the first day is "Why do people work?" We go to that country which offers material in its history best answering the question. The outline of the Basic Course shows the

countries considered. We add some experience from these countries to what the men already know.

Our lesson sheets are short, because we rely largely on the experience of the men under instruction for information. Soldiers are adults, not children; therefore we do not need so many textbooks; the data needed is usually in the classroom in the minds of the men. What we need to do is to organize it for the men. They want a little added information, so that is put into the daily lesson sheet. This is why we had to discard the public-school textbooks; they were for children who had little experience and needed long texts.

We soon discovered that the men did not like the texts for children, so we had to write our own. Each day we wrote a lesson, tried it out on real soldiers at Camp Grant, had a conference of teachers on its effect on the men, and revised and improved it, so the lessons which the Service Bureau will send out next year for us in all the camps and posts will not be theoretical but actually used during the past year on soldiers.

To illustrate, take Lesson VIII. The topic is "Safety and Health." The aim is to teach respect for human life. This is the topic we discussed the day Secretary Baker visited my class at Camp Lee. The teacher asks some questions to arouse interest; the lesson sheet gives additional facts. Some people say the army is a man-killing machine; but the soldier is taught to respect and save life. An army is intended to save life. The other day, when I was driven to the station in an army car in Detroit, we came to a man driving a machine who was seized by a fit. The soldier driving my car stopped his car, ran to the other man, stopped his machine, got him out of the car into a drug-store, and called a doctor before the surrounding civilians could think of what to do. The soldier was trained to save life. The soldiers want facts. Notice the facts in Lesson VIII: In the Civil War on both sides not more than 90,000 men were killed in battle, while in Illinois every year there are 123,000 preventable deaths in industry and on the street. We need to learn respect for human life.

#### ENGLISH EXPENDITURES FOR EDUCATION

England began during the war to expand her educational system. Great sums were added to the national budget to extend schools and to open larger educational opportunity to all classes. That the policy inaugurated during the war is to become a permanent part of the national program is evidenced by the following statement with regard to next year's appropriations for schools:

The new estimates of the British Chancellor of the Exchequer covering expenditures of a "normal" year allot £135,000,000 for Great Britain's military expenses and £305,000,000 for running the civil departments of her government.

These estimates, according to the Bankers Trust Company of New York, are in striking contrast to the expenditures for military and civil service in the

normal years preceding the world-war. As late as 1909, during a period of peace, Great Britain spent £59,000,000 on her military establishment and only £49,000,000 on her civil departments, including the expenditures for public education, old-age pensions, and other outlay for the social betterment of her people. The postal service is omitted because its expenditures were offset by income.

In the new estimates £70,000,000 is allotted to education alone, or 40 per cent more than the total cost of British civil departments only ten years ago. The latest estimate for old-age pensions is £28,000,000, and £38,000,000 is put down for the Ministries of Labor and Health, including £17,500,000 for unemployment and health insurance and £15,000,000 as subsidy to promote the erection of much-needed new houses. War pensions and allowances are £120,000,000.

"The explanation of this steady increase in the cost of civil government," says a study of *English Public Finance* by the Bankers Trust Company, "is to be found in the awakening of the civic conscience to the duty of the state to its citizens.

"In 1839 Parliament for the first time voted a small sum for public education. By 1854 the expenditure for this purpose reached £559,000; twenty years later it was more than four times as great. In another twenty years the expenditure for this purpose had again quadrupled, while in 1914 it was over £19,000,000, twice the 1895 amount. To complete the record we may note that this sum has again doubled in the year ended March 31, 1920, and that the budget figure for the current year is £56,000,000."

#### A COURSE IN PREPARATION FOR HIGH SCHOOL

This is perhaps a somewhat pretentious title with which to introduce a very useful suggestion, but it is hardly an exaggeration. In Alton, Illinois, the high school publishes a book on high-school customs and laws which is used in the eighth grades of that city as a text to be read by all pupils in silent-reading exercises.

The book has five parts. The first is entitled "For the New Student" and tells about the building, about registration, school hours, faculty advisers, and so on. The next part deals with the school curriculum; other sections with departments of instruction, student activities, and school duties and customs.

The eighth-grader who has read through the 119 pages of this book and studied its index, which is very full, will certainly not be lost when he is introduced at the beginning of his next year to the actual building and experiences which are described in this course. The reading material supplied to the eighth grade is one of the incidental advantages of this course. The canons

recognized these days by all good teachers of reading are satisfied by this book, for the matter is closely related to the reader's experience, useful in guiding behavior, and adapted to his interests.

There are a great many typical passages which might be selected from the book. One dealing with tardiness will have to represent the whole book for the purposes of the present note.

It is easy to slip into the habit of being late, and everything possible is done to discourage tardiness in the Roosevelt High School. In spite of the effort, however, there is much more tardiness than there should be. The best way to overcome this fault is for each student to determine that as far as he is personally concerned, no tardy mark shall be credited to him. Recently the student council has taken up the matter and hopes to check tardiness among the various classes.

If a pupil is so careless or so unfortunate as to be tardy, he should go at once to the office and ask for the printed slip to take to the teacher for whose class he is late, stating, also, the cause of his tardiness and when he will bring an excuse from home. If the tardiness is unavoidable he will not be asked to make up time; but if he is tardy through carelessness, he may be asked to remain after school a certain amount of time to cover his tardiness. The amount of time to be made up should be in about the proportion of ten to one for the minutes he is late.

#### CANADIAN LEGISLATION FOR ADOLESCENTS

The following news item is quoted from the *New York Evening Post*:

The Adolescent School Attendance Act recently passed in Ontario aims to provide the youth of the province with a higher minimum of education than that secured by either Mr. Fisher's English bill or by the various similar enactments of the states of the American Union.

The Ontario act, which was framed by the Hon. and Rev. Dr. Cody when Minister of Education, and approved by his successor, the Hon. R. H. Grant, makes provision, first, for those between the ages of fourteen and sixteen, and second, for those between sixteen and eighteen years of age.

After September 1, 1921 (unless, indeed, the Minister should take pity upon the unprepared municipalities that find themselves without sufficient school accommodation and should extend the time for a further six months), the period of compulsory full-time school attendance will be increased to include those of sixteen years of age, instead of ending with the present final limit of fourteen years. Very few exceptions will be allowed to those between fourteen and sixteen, complete immunity being granted only to those unable to attend school because of sickness or other physical infirmity, or to those who have passed the matriculation examination of an approved university or who have completed an equivalent course of study satisfactory to the Department of Education. Partial exemption will be granted to two classes only—first, to those boys and girls whose parents or guardians furnish satisfactory proof that their personal help is needed in some approved form of home employment,

such as farm labor or housework, and, second, to those who are obliged to go to work in order to assist their families financially. Both classes of these partially employed adolescents, however, will be required to attend school for 400 hours, in place of the 1,100 hours of the regular school year.

After September 1, 1923, a minimum school attendance of 320 hours a year will be required of all those in the province between the ages of sixteen and eighteen. Not only will the same exemptions be allowed to those older adolescents as are granted to those between fourteen and sixteen, but a certain special dispensation may also be granted at the discretion of the public-school inspector to those who have already taken a satisfactory full-time course of instruction up to the age of sixteen.

The act further provides that all municipalities of 5,000 and over shall establish part-time courses for the adolescents between the ages of fourteen and eighteen. These courses may be selected from those prescribed for the public schools, high schools, art, industrial, and technical schools, and from the commercial, agricultural, and household science departments in the high schools.

## NEWS ITEMS FROM SECONDARY SCHOOLS

### PUPILS' OPINIONS OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

*Junior High School, Monmouth, Illinois.*—Two hundred and ten junior high-school children were asked the question: "Do you like the junior high-school plan? State the reason for your answer." No time was given for discussion or communication. General reasons named, with typical replies, are as follows:

1. Departmental teaching, named by 150 pupils

- a) Passing from room to room
- b) Different teachers
- c) Rooms for special subjects

I like the junior high plan better because you have different teachers and go from one room to another. If you have some trouble with one teacher you can go to another. If you had to stay in the same room all day, you would not get your lessons as well. But as it is, you can't get tired because you walk to different rooms and get exercise to strengthen you.

2. Better organization—50 pupils

- a) Longer periods for study and recitation
- b) Program for study as well as recitation
- c) Smaller classes
- d) Lessons prepared at school

I like the junior high-school plan better because we have forty-minute recitation periods and our work is more organized. We know just what and when we are to study our various lessons. Going to school at eight-thirty makes a person feel more ready to work.

## 3. Supervised study—70 pupils

- a) Study hall, reference books, other material
- b) Individual help

## 4. Broader and richer curriculum—10 pupils

I like the junior high-school plan; the subjects are more interesting; science gives lots more ideas than all the other subjects we used to have. Civics will help you when you get to high school. Cooking, sewing, and manual training for half a day helps more than for part of an afternoon.

## 5. Better preparation by teachers—130 pupils

The junior high-school teacher has more time to look up what she is going to assign and know whether it is what she wants or not. She also has more time to look up new things and new ways. "Jack of all trades is master of none."

## 6. Social activities—125 pupils

- a) Assembly periods
- b) Special activities
- c) Wider acquaintance

I think the assembly periods that we have every week are very interesting. They teach us to be able to get up in front of people and not be frightened. I like to go into the assembly room and hear patriotic and other speeches.

## 7. Better holding power—25 pupils

- a) Prepares for senior high school
- b) Gives equal opportunity to all
- c) Allows pupils to specialize

It gives you a taste of high school. The subjects are better; they are almost like high school. When you go to junior high school it makes you feel that you are more, and you take more interest in your work.

## 8. Vocational guidance—5 pupils

- a) Prepares for business
- b) More practical education

Lots of children stop school when they finish the eighth grade and the eighth grade used to be a preparation for high school and not preparatory for business as it is now. Now you learn more things that otherwise you would have had to take in high school. If you stop school at the eighth grade you don't go into the world without a practical education.

MYRTLE T. SIMMONS, *Principal*